

Can you hear me?

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Current Goal: Quadratic Reciprocity.

Theorem has to do with which elements of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  have a square root.

Example: In  $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$ .

$a$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
$a^2$	0	1	4	2	2	4	1

Find that 1, 2, 4 each have two distinct square roots mod 7.

On the other hand, 3, 5, 6 do not have any square roots mod 7.

Convenient notation: Given  $a, p \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p$  prime, define the "Legendre symbol".

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) := \begin{cases} +1 & a \text{ square mod } p \\ -1 & a \text{ non-square mod } p \\ 0 & a = 0 \text{ mod } p \end{cases}$$

Quadratic Reciprocity:

for odd primes  $p, q$  we have

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}}$$

This fact leads to an algorithm to compute Legendre symbols.

Example: (Stillwell pg. 171)

$$\left(\frac{37}{59}\right) = + \left(\frac{59}{37}\right) \quad \text{Q.R.}$$

$$= \left(\frac{22}{37}\right) \quad \text{remainder}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\textcircled{2}}{37}\right) \left(\frac{11}{37}\right) \quad \text{special case}$$

$$= (-1) \left(\frac{11}{37}\right)$$

$$= (-1) \left( \frac{37}{11} \right) \quad \text{Q.R.}$$

$$= - \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)$$

$$= - \left( \frac{2}{11} \right)^2$$

$$= -1$$

Conclusion: 37 is NOT square mod 59.

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^^ There is no easy proof of Q.R.

See: Mathologer video on YouTube

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To prepare we will develop some lemmas.

$$\text{First: } n = \sum_{d|n} \phi(d)$$

Example: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \phi(1) & + & \phi(2) & + & \phi(3) & + & \phi(4) & + & \phi(6) & + & \phi(12) & = & 12 \\ 1 & & 1 & & 2 & & \frac{2^2-1}{2} & & \phi(2)\phi(3) & & 4 & & \checkmark \\ & & & & & & 2 & & 2 & & & & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(12) &= \phi(2^2)\phi(3) \\ &= (2^2 - 2^1)(3 - 1) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4\end{aligned}$$

Proof:  $F_n = \left\{ \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{n}{n} \right\}$

$$F'_n = \left\{ \frac{k}{n} : \gcd(k, n) = 1 \right\} \subseteq F_n.$$

Claim:  $F_n = \bigsqcup_{d|n} F'_d$  disjoint.

Hence  $n = \sum_{d|n} \phi(d)$ .

- $F_n \subseteq \cup F'_d$

Given  $\frac{k}{n} \in F_n$ . Let  $\lambda = \gcd(k, n)$   
 $k = \lambda k', n = \lambda n'$   
 $\gcd(k', n') = 1$   
 $n' | n$ .

Then  $\frac{k}{n} = \frac{\lambda k'}{\lambda n'} = \frac{k'}{n'} \in F'_{n'}$  ✓

- $\cup F'_d \subseteq F_n$

Consider  $\frac{k}{d} \in F'_d$  for some  $d|n, n = \lambda d$ .

$$\text{Then } \frac{k}{d} = \frac{\lambda k}{\lambda d} = \frac{\lambda k}{n} \quad \checkmark \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} k \leq d \\ \lambda k \leq \lambda d = n \end{array} \right)$$

$$\bullet F_d' \cap F_e' \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow d=e.$$

Suppose  $\alpha \in F_d' \cap F_e'$ ,

$$\text{so } \alpha = \frac{k}{d} = \frac{l}{e} \quad \text{where } \begin{array}{l} \gcd(k,d)=1 \\ \gcd(l,e)=1 \end{array}$$

$$dk = ek$$

$$d \mid ek \text{ and } \gcd(k,d)=1 \Rightarrow d \mid e.$$

$$e \mid dk \text{ and } \gcd(l,e)=1 \Rightarrow e \mid d.$$

$$\Rightarrow d = \pm e.$$

$$\Rightarrow d = e \quad (\text{both positive}) \quad \checkmark$$

Need Another "Lemma": p prime

Any polynomial of degree  $d$  & with integer coefficients has  $\leq d$  roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .

Note: primality is necessary!

$x^2 - 1$  has 4 roots  $\text{mod } 8$

Namely,  $x = 1, 3, 5, 7$   $8$  not prime

$4 > 2!$

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Key Fact:  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$

is a FIELD, for  $p$  prime.

We will prove the more general result:

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field.

Any polynomial of degree  $d$  with coefficients in  $\mathbb{F}$  has  $\leq d$  roots in  $\mathbb{F}$ .

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This actually goes back to  
Descartes' Géométrie (1637)

In modern terms: for any ring  $R$   
we can define a ring  $R[x]$  of  
"polynomials in  $x$  with coefficients from  $R$ "

$$R[x] = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots : \\ a_i \in R, \text{ only finitely many} \\ \text{are nonzero} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{Let } f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$$

If  $a_n$  is the highest nonzero coefficient then we say  $\deg(f) = n$ .

$$\text{Given } f(x) = \sum a_i x^i$$

$$g(x) = \sum b_i x^i$$

we define

$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum (a_i + b_i) x^i$$

$$f(x)g(x) = \sum_k \left( \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i} \right) x^k$$

Claim:  $R[x]$  is a ring.

zero element:  $0 + 0x + 0x^2 + 0x^3 + \dots$

one element:  $1 + 0x + 0x^2 + 0x^3 + \dots$

Convention: For any  $a \in R$ , we write

$$a + 0x + 0x^2 + 0x^3 + \dots = a$$

We can think of  $R \subseteq R[x]$   
as the subring of "constant polynomials"

The ring  $R[x]$  can be complicated  
but if  $R = \mathbb{F}$  is a field then the  
ring is very nice.

$\mathbb{Z}$                        $\mathbb{F}[x]$

share many properties in common.

In particular, the ring  $\mathbb{F}[x]$  has  
"division with remainder".

Theorem: Given  $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$   
where  $g(x) \neq 0$ , there exist (unique)  
 $q(x), r(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$  such that

$$\begin{cases} f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) \\ \deg(r) < \deg(g) \end{cases}$$

Question:  $\deg(0) = \deg(0 + 0x + 0x^2 + \dots)$



Two options:

→ say  $\deg(\Delta)$  does not exist.

→ say  $\deg(\Delta) = -\infty$  for convenience.

Technically:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x) \\ \underline{\underline{r(x) = 0}} \text{ or } \deg(r) < \deg(g) \end{array} \right.$$

The proof is really just an algorithm.

Example: Divide  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + x + 3$   
by  $g(x) = x - 1$ .

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 - x \\ \hline (x-1) \overline{) (x^3) - 2x^2 + x + 3} \\ \underline{x^3 - x^2 + 0 + \Delta} \\ 0 \quad (-x^2) + x + 3 \\ \underline{-x^2 + x + 0} \\ 3 \end{array}$$

Summary:  $q(x) = x^2 - x$   
 $r(x) = 3$

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

$$x^3 - 2x^2 + x + 3 = (x^2 - x)(x - 1) + 3$$

Remainder is small:

$$\deg(3x^0) < \deg(x^1 - 1)$$

$$x^0 = 1$$

$$0 < 1 \quad \checkmark$$

In general, given  $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$   
 $a \in \mathbb{F}$

We can divide  $f(x)$  by  $x - a$  to obtain

$$f(x) = q(x)(x - a) + r(x)$$

$$\deg(r) < \deg(x - a)$$

Hence  $r(x) = 0$  or  $\deg(r) = 0$

Either way  $r(x) = c$  is just a constant polynomial.

Remainder of  $f(x)$  mod  $x-a$  is a constant. What is the value of the constant?

Check:  $f(x) = q(x)(x-a) + c$

plug in  $x=a$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) &= q(a)(\cancel{a-a}) + c \\ &= q(a) \cdot 0 + c = c \end{aligned}$$

$$c = f(a)$$

Remainder = Evaluation  
mod  $x-a$  at  $x=a$

Descartes' Theorem: Given  $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$  and  $a \in \mathbb{F}$ , we have

$$f(a) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(x) \text{ divisible by } x-a.$$

in  $\mathbb{F}$  in  $\mathbb{F}[x]$

Corollary: Polynomial  $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$   
of degree  $n$  has  $\leq n$  roots in  $\mathbb{F}$ .

Proof (Induction on  $n$ ).

If  $f(x)$  has no roots in  $\mathbb{F}$ , done ✓

Suppose  $f(a) = 0$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{F}$ .

Then Descartes

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = g(x)(x-a)$$

for some  $g(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ ,  $\deg(g) = n-1$ .

By induction,  $g(x)$  has  $\leq n-1$  roots in  $\mathbb{F}$ .

But if  $\underline{f(b) = 0}$  for some  $\underline{b \neq a}$ , then

$$f(b) = g(b)(b-a)$$

$$0 = g(b)(b-a)$$

$$\underline{0 = g(b)}.$$

$$b-a \neq 0$$

Hence  $f$  has  $\leq 1 + (n-1)$  roots in  $\mathbb{F}$

